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What job attitudes tell about motivation

Not how well employees are performing, but how well the company is rewarding them

Foreword

Many businessmen have become disenchanted with the subject of employees' attitudes toward their jobs. Despite numerous attempts over the years, no good way seems to have been found to "put a handle" on information about job attitudes and to make this information useful. The trouble, Messrs. Porter and Lawler believe, is that businessmen have been looking at job attitudes in the wrong way. An employee's satisfaction or dissatisfaction with a job may not directly affect his performance, but it *does* reflect whether or not the company is rewarding him properly for the kind of work he is doing. The authors go on to discuss different kinds of management policies that affect this problem, and outline a program of action for companies to follow in dealing with it.

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Emerson once wrote, "This time, like all times, is a good one if we but know what to do with it." With slight rephrasing, this philosophy could aptly express the typical organization's quandary with respect to the role of job attitudes: job attitudes are always present, if only we knew what they meant!

Every manager is continually being confronted with evidence that his subordinates hold a variety of attitudes toward him, toward the organization, and, especially, toward their jobs. What most managers are not sure of is how they should react to these attitudes. Should they ignore them entirely? Should they systematically try to measure them? If they decide to measure the attitudes, a whole set of other questions arises. What kinds of attitudes are important to measure? What interpretations should be put on the results of attitude studies? For example, is high job satisfaction good? Does information on job satisfaction tell anything about motivation? Finally, the organization is faced with a whole series of questions about what kinds of action, if any, it should take as a consequence of the existing attitudes. In a sense, then, management is frequently faced with the dilemma of what its own attitude should be toward employees' attitudes.

Our position on these questions can be summarized as follows: Job attitudes *are* important and merit the attention of businessmen. They are *not* important, however, in the ways that most top executives ordinarily think about them. In the succeeding pages we shall try to answer the specific questions raised above, utilizing previous evidence, some recently articulated theoretical notions, and data from our own investigations dealing with managerial job attitudes. Finally, we shall put forth some suggested guidelines for organizational action on how to utilize attitude data more effectively.

A short history

Industry's flirtation with job attitudes has had an interesting history and one that sheds considerable light on the current ambiguous feelings about their importance. During the early part of this century, most business leaders doggedly avoided giving any attention at all to this aspect of employee behavior. Instead, the focus was on the principles of scientific management with their concern for maximizing operator efficiency. And since these principles were built around the "man as a machine" analogy, and since machines obviously do not have attitudes, it was logical for companies to ignore job attitudes in their search for new approaches to increased human efficiency. This neglect on the part of the owner or manager was reinforced by the activities of early personnel specialists, especially industrial psychologists. Their attention was focused on quite another area—namely, on improving the selection of employees so that only competent ones would be hired. If any attention was given to the attitudes and behavior of employees once they were on the job, it consisted almost entirely of developing certain kinds of blue-collar skill training.

Romantic period

The lowly status of job attitudes changed rapidly and decisively in the 1930's and 1940's. During these years the topic was pursued with great ardor by businessmen, the chief reason being the dramatic impact on both business and academic circles of the findings of Elton Mayo and Fritz J. Roethlisberger in the now classic Hawthorne studies. Suddenly, it became apparent to everyone that human performance in the job situation was not solely a function of the aptitudes or skills that the employee brought to the workplace. The massive number of interviews carried out by investigators at the Hawthorne plant (some 20,000) vividly illustrated that the average worker did indeed think about his job, had various kinds of reactions to it, and, most importantly, believed his feelings affected how hard he worked. A number of managers and personnel specialists jumped to the conclusion that "if we can improve job satisfaction and morale, we can improve job performance."

Immediately, businessmen set about to take advantage of this newly found insight. Companies took action on two fronts. First, they initiated attempts to measure the state of employee feelings in order to know where to concentrate their efforts in improving employee satisfaction. Secondly, they set about to train their managers, especially first-level supervisors, to pay attention to the attitudes and feelings of their subordinates so that performance could thereby be improved. Meanwhile, personnel staff specialists began to set up studies which would demonstrate that, if companies did in fact improve morale, there would be consequent increases in performance.

Era of disenchantment

But as often happens in the case of precipitous and intense affairs, disenchantment soon began to set in. There were those critics of the human relations movement who saw the concern with job satisfaction and morale as degenerating into a wishy-washy "make people happy" approach. For example, William Whyte in *The Organization Man* asked, "What about. . .the tyranny of the happy work team? What about the adverse effects of high morale?" [1] Similarly, Malcolm McNair, in his well-known HBR article, claimed that "devoting too much effort in business to trying to keep everybody happy results in conformity, in failure to build individuals." [2]

In effect, these critics were arguing that, even if high job satisfaction could be shown to have some relationship to employee performance, there were associated negative consequences which were being overlooked. Quite aside from the anti-human relations attacks, many companies were beginning to question whether it was worthwhile to bother with trying to improve job satisfaction. The costs involved in measuring job satisfaction, and especially in trying to increase it, often seemed to be disproportionate to the presumed gains in performance. In short, the payoff did not seem to be nearly as large as many had thought it would be.

Social scientists, especially those with an interest in seeing that attitude research was supported and encouraged by business organiza-

1. New York, Simon & Schuster, 1956, p. 401.

2. "What Price Human Relations?" HBR March-April 1957, p. 20.

tions, were also slow in coming to the same realization. They finally began to suspect the validity of their hypothesis that increases in job satisfaction would result in direct improvements in performance. Two scholarly reviews of the scientific literature published in the mid-1950's appeared to demonstrate conclusively that satisfaction-performance relationships were much weaker than most people had assumed.[3] These reviews proved to have sobering effects on psychologists and others engaged in personnel research; the reviews were followed by a marked decrease in the reporting of satisfaction-performance studies in scientific journals. Having found the simple "satisfaction increases performance" hypothesis seemingly unsupported by the evidence, scholars joined managers in abandoning much of their interest in assessing employees' job satisfaction.

Mistakes in retrospect

Several important lessons can be learned from this brief review of the rise and fall of interest in job attitude research:

☐ The early assumptions about the effects of high levels of job satisfaction were greatly oversimplified, if not clearly incorrect. Any view that, because a worker is satisfied, he *must* be a highly productive performer is obviously naive. The first lesson to be learned is not that job satisfaction is an inconsequential variable, but rather that its relationship to performance is more complex than previously recognized.

☐ Both companies and psychologists concentrated their attentions too narrowly on "satisfaction" as the only type of attitude that should be measured and dealt with. Other attitudes or views that might be held by employees were generally ignored in the attempts to see whether their liking for their jobs could be improved.

Second look at evidence

Before proceeding to other points, let us take another look at the accumulated evidence. While it is true that very few well-controlled investigations found highly positive relationships between satisfaction and performance, the *trend* of the relationships nevertheless seems to be in that direction. For example, one authority has reviewed some 20 studies and found that in most of the cases where data on satisfaction and performance were gathered, higher satisfaction was associated with better job performance.[4] Such consistency is highly significant in a statistical sense, and indicates that some sort of meaningful relationship probably exists between these two variables.

Also, most studies of the relationship between satisfaction and such measures of job behavior as turnover and absenteeism (but not performance) have obtained definite results in the expected direction. That is, high satisfaction *is* associated with low turnover and with low absenteeism.

The foregoing suggests that the demise of interest in measuring job satisfaction may be quite premature. In other words, even without any new research studies or theoretical analyses, the available data alone would appear to justify a concern with this type of attitude. Given this conclusion, the question remains: What should management do with job satisfaction information? We shall try to answer that now.

Changing the focus

The first step in understanding this subject is to stop putting the satisfaction cart before the performance horse, so to speak. It appears wiser to think of job satisfaction as something that is likely to result *from* performance behavior rather than as the cause of good or bad performance.

The reasoning goes like this: Satisfaction comes about when certain of our needs or desires are fulfilled. (Let us use the shorthand term "rewards" to refer to those things we receive from others or gain by our own actions that help fulfill our needs.) Thus, in an organization where we work, job satisfaction is generated when we receive rewards from our job situation. Such rewards are of many types and are provided in many ways. Some of them are intrinsic, such as when we feel a sense of accomplishment at having carried through a difficult task successfully; in such a case we can, in effect, administer the reward ourselves. Other rewards are clearly extrinsic, provided by people other than ourselves—such as when the boss gives us a promotion, or when the organization awards us a year-end bonus.

Psychologically speaking, then, the degree to

3. See Arthur H. Brayfield and Walter H. Crockett, "Employee Attitudes and Employee Performance," *Psychological Bulletin*, September 1955; and Frederick Herzberg, et al, *Job Attitudes: Review of Research and Opinion* (Pittsburgh, Psychological Service of Pittsburgh, 1957).

4. See Victor H. Vroom, *Work and Motivation* (New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1964), Chapter 6.

which we feel satisfied should be roughly proportionate to the amount of rewards we believe we are receiving from our job environment. A crucial point in this chain of reasoning is often overlooked: the amount of rewards we receive *may* be unrelated to how well we have performed. To put it another way, high-quality performance is not the only means, nor necessarily the most important means, by which we are able to obtain rewards from our work.

Contrasting situations

Here it will help to make the point if we consider two situations, one involving a blue-collar worker, the other a manager. The illustrations that follow are hypothetical but realistic:

▽ *Nonmanagerial worker*—His base rate of pay is determined completely by a fixed schedule that provides exactly the same amount of pay for all employees holding that type of job. Short of totally unacceptable performance, his pay will not be lowered. It also is not likely to be raised easily by above-average performance. However, it *is* likely to increase as a result of seniority. The degree of his job security also is probably determined by his seniority and contract provisions, not by the day-to-day quality of his performance.

The employee's opportunities to gain considerable amounts of intrinsic rewards from performing his job duties in a superior fashion are frequently limited by the mechanical, machine-controlled nature of his work. Furthermore, his chances to assume new, more interesting duties (with higher pay) by working harder on his current job are probably sharply curtailed both in terms of the way in which the organization has arranged the work flow and by union contracts that might exist. In short, the bulk of his rewards are determined not by how good or poor his job performance is, but by factors that are largely or totally beyond his personal control.

Although our example is hypothetical, it typifies a large percentage of rank-and-file work situations in which it is nearly impossible for workers to receive varying amounts of rewards, and therefore of satisfaction, in relation to their performance. If this be the case, then the failure of most previous studies to find strong, positive relationships between satisfaction and performance is not at all surprising; it is, in fact, perfectly predictable and logical, since almost all of them were carried out at the rank-and-file level of organizations.

△ *Manager*—Rewards for this man are more nearly proportionate to the quality and quantity of his performance. Compared to the blue-collar worker's situation, at least, rewards from factors beyond the manager's control are of less importance than rewards due to his own work.

Why is this relationship likely to be found at the managerial level in a company? Because it is here, if anywhere, that the organization has the potential flexibility to give rewards commensurate with performance. For one thing, in a given group of managers there is the opportunity to pay different salaries based on performance even though all the men are carrying out the same assigned tasks, or equivalent tasks. Other extrinsic rewards, such as status and authority, can also be dispensed in differing amounts to those working in the same kinds of jobs. Likewise, managers, as compared with nonmanagers, tend to have more flexibility in gaining intrinsic rewards from their jobs based on their efforts and performance. Their jobs usually involve considerably greater variety and hence more opportunity to achieve a sense of completion and worthwhile accomplishment.

Findings of new study

The picture drawn from the foregoing observations can be substantiated by research data. We have recently completed a study of managers in five companies of differing types and character. A noteworthy feature of the study is that it is one of the first satisfaction-performance studies to use a sample of executives instead of nonmanagerial employees.[5] The results show:

□ Managers who are ranked high by their superiors report significantly greater satisfaction than do the low-ranked managers. However, the degree of relationship between high performance and high satisfaction, though somewhat larger than in most previous studies made on nonmanagement workers, is not as large as it reasonably could be.

□ The greatest differences between the high- and low-performance groups, in terms of perceived rewards, occur in those areas where personal needs are deepest and most intangible. The best performing managers do not report receiving much greater rewards in pay or security, but they do report significantly more rewards in areas concerned with opportunities to

5. For a detailed report of the findings, see our book, *Managerial Attitudes and Performance* (Homewood, Illinois, Richard D. Irwin, Inc., to be published early in 1968).

express autonomy and to obtain self-realization in the job.

The import of this is that the five organizations in our sample seem to be allowing their best management performers to gain more self-fulfillment and self-realization from work than low performers do, but they do not appear to be providing perceptibly different *extrinsic* rewards to the two groups. This was confirmed when we found that, at a given management level in any of the companies studied, pay does not show an appreciable relationship to rated job performance.

Meaning for management

In light of the foregoing analyses and findings, the tough question for top management to face up to is this: Does the organization actively and visibly give rewards directly in proportion to the quality of job performance for all of its employees, rank-and-file as well as managers? *If* it does, and *if* employees realize this, then high satisfaction should be more closely associated with superior performance. To the extent that satisfaction and performance are positively related in a given situation, management knows that the best performers believe they are receiving the most rewards.

On the other hand, a company's failure to find job satisfaction related to job performance for a sample of its employees may mean that it is not in fact differentially rewarding its best performers. Such a failure might also suggest that employees are not working on jobs where good performance is intrinsically satisfying and interesting. Looked at in this way, the role of job satisfaction is quite different from that formerly assigned to it by the human relations advocates. Its role is not to serve as a stimulus to employees' job performance but rather as a gauge of how good a job the organization itself is doing in rewarding employees in proportion to the quality and quantity of their performance. Data on job satisfaction also suggest something about how challenging and stimulating employees feel their jobs are.

The company which takes this kind of view of job satisfaction adopts an approach which is different from the usual one. Its aim is not necessarily to increase everyone's satisfaction, and thereby to make "everyone happy," but rather to make sure that the best performing employees are the most satisfied employees. Its goal, in other words, is not to maximize satisfaction, but to maximize the *relationship* between satisfaction and performance.

Role of other attitudes

In the past, as previously pointed out, most companies and researchers have acted as if satisfaction is the only kind of job attitude worth measuring. But it is our contention that other types of attitudes or beliefs are just as important, if not more so, in understanding and modifying employee motivation. These are attitudes that do what job satisfaction was naively assumed to do: namely, affect the amount of effort a person puts into his job.

To begin with, let us make the reasonable assumption that people want to obtain various kinds of rewards from their jobs—a certain level of pay, self-fulfillment, security, status, personal growth, and the like. Furthermore, let us assume that each person attaches different degrees of importance to these various potential rewards. We can say that people place different "values" on different rewards.

Concurrently, we can also assume that in a given job situation an employee will have notions about how likely he is to receive these rewards in return for exerting extra amounts of effort in his job. Such beliefs can be labeled "effort-reward expectations." In some cases, the individual will have low expectations that more effort on his part will provide him with increased rewards. For example, the blue-collar worker described earlier probably feels it is quite unlikely that above-average performance on his part will lead to greater security or a chance to perform a more satisfying set of tasks. On the other hand, the typical manager described might have higher expectations because he feels the organization will, to a certain degree, pay off for the effort he puts into his job.

The conceptual formulations we have discussed can be portrayed as shown in *Exhibit I.* Here performance is seen as resulting from effort. (Aptitudes and skills are regarded as constants in this formulation, as we are focusing solely on the attitude or motivational bases of performance.) Effort is seen as resulting from the interaction of reward values and effort-reward expectations in the following way: the more a reward is valued and the higher the expectation that effort will lead to this reward, the greater will be the effort exerted (and hence the better will be the performance).[6]

Putting results to use

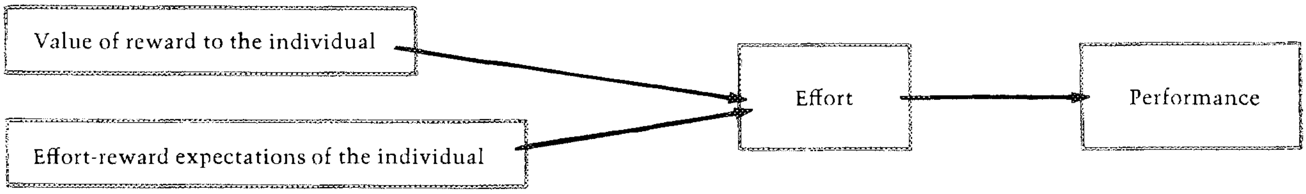
The formulation diagrammed in *Exhibit I* does more than put several variables into a theoretical relationship. It tells an organization what types of attitudes should be measured and worked with if performance is to be improved through increased effort. These attitudes can be stated as questions:

1. How much does the employee value various possible rewards?
2. What are the probabilities, in his opinion, that a high degree of effort on his part will lead to the rewards he wants?

If an organization has accurate data on these two attitudes, it should be able to predict who will put forth the most effort in his job and, even more important, what might be done by the organization to increase this effort. Consider the following:

☐ In our study of managers, several of the questions we asked related to pay. One concerned the importance of pay to the manager; another concerned how closely he felt his pay was based on job performance factors (such as effort). The answers to these questions were then compared to superiors' ratings of the amount of effort each man put forth on his job. The results showed that the highest rated managers were those who saw their pay most closely tied to their effort—that is, who had the highest effort-reward expectations. Additionally, and significantly, this relationship between expectations and rated effort was strongest for those managers *who attached the most importance to pay.*

Exhibit I. Role of attitudes other than satisfaction in performance



Systematic monitoring of the effort-reward expectations held by employees will provide pertinent data on the motivation levels present in the organization. Changes in these expectations could indicate whether employee motivation has increased or decreased over a set period of time. Also, differences among parts of the organization would help pinpoint those areas where motivation is weakest.

The data on effort-reward expectations could be gathered from individuals by interview, questionnaire, and/or other appropriate methods known to personnel specialists. The data should be grouped by departments and work units for examination. In evaluating changes in employees' expectations over time, averages for the departments or units would be used.

The collection of such information may, in turn, lead to the following kinds of questions: What can companies do if they find from their attitude studies that their employees do not have high effort-reward expectations? What can they do about motivational soft spots in the organization? Where should they look in order to improve the effort-reward expectancies of employees? We shall discuss these questions in the following section.

Reward practices

A key to the whole attitude picture for an organization revolves around its reward practices—which may or may not be similar to its reward policies. Because of this, job attitudes can be utilized as a set of indicators of an organization's ability to motivate its employees. Let us elaborate. For a company or firm to produce high levels of motivation, top management should make sure that:

1. The rewards given are those most desired in return for performing the job well.
2. Superior performers are given more extrinsic rewards (e.g., salary and bonuses) and are provided with more opportunities to gain intrinsic rewards (e.g., challenging and varied work) than inferior performers are given.
3. Most individuals in the organization *see*

6. For a similar approach to work motivation, see Victor H. Vroom, op. cit.

and *believe* that good performance leads to both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards.

Each of these steps involves careful attention to certain details, and, as we hope to show, relevant attitude data should indicate whether such attention is being given to them.

Offering what is desired

The first step in building effective reward practices is for the company to make sure that the rewards it is providing are ones which are widely desired. This is a seemingly simple point that is often neglected. In day-to-day operations we frequently forget that, regardless of the value the giver or observer places on a reward, its motivational influence comes about only as a result of the value the *receiver* places on it. In effect, rewards that the company considers highly positive inducements may not be so regarded by many of the persons receiving them. Yet how many times do companies check this out?

Attitude measurement provides management with a potential tool to confirm its assumptions about *what* is motivating, or will motivate, various groups and individuals in the work force. Eventually, a company may want to consider systematically selecting the kinds of employees who will value the particular rewards that it can give most readily and feasibly.

Favoring superior performers

Knowledge of the kinds of rewards that are most highly valued, and by whom, is only an initial step in developing psychologically meaningful reward practices. The next step involves the crucial, and sometimes difficult, process of attaching rewards to performance such that superior performers receive more than average or mediocre ones do.

Measuring differences: This involves developing methods to discriminate between good and poor performance. Of course, this is far from an easy job. Typically, in management, performance measurement involves judgments that are subjective in nature. Sometimes, it is true, objective data are available—for instance, in sales management—but often in these cases the interpretation of the "facts" is complicated because factors beyond the subordinate's control influence the final results. (An example would be where one sales manager's area has greater sales potential than another man's area.) Hence, the boss or other evaluator is often right back where he started—namely, facing the necessity of making subjective, nonprovable assessments.

Given this situation, we would like to suggest that organizations make greater use of self-ratings in measuring individual performance. This should serve to increase the accuracy of performance measurements and, perhaps even more important, their acceptance. Under such a system, the superior and subordinate would jointly establish the subordinate's performance goals for an ensuing period. The two should also agree on how progress toward these goals is to be measured and on what kinds of rewards are to be given if the goals are achieved. Finally, at the end of the period, the two men would *jointly* participate in assessing the results and determining how much progress the subordinate has made during the period. This approach does not mean that the boss gives up his role as the final arbiter; it simply provides him with other important information which he can incorporate into his decisions and which may help to increase his subordinates' confidence in them.

Providing rewards: Besides being able to distinguish among performance differences, management must be able to provide commensurate rewards. A man may know that he is regarded as one of the best employees, but this knowledge will do little to enhance his performance if his superior cannot provide him with sufficient rewards or opportunities to gain rewards. Quite often, the organization has so restricted the freedom of individual superiors to dispense rewards of any type that they are completely hamstrung in tying rewards closely to performance. The net effect is to reduce by a considerable amount the possibilities of motivating employees.

However, granted that the boss has the power to provide appropriate rewards, will he go ahead and actually give them out? The process frequently breaks down at this point. For instance, the boss may hesitate to act because of the threat of competition from below or because of the possible complaints he will receive from those who do not get what they desire. The main role that higher management can play in dealing with these types of situations is to endeavor to provide concrete rewards to superiors who do not shrink from evaluating and rewarding outstanding subordinate performance. It has been well established by research that the right types of reward policies higher up the line can have positive impacts on those practiced lower down in the organization.

Maintaining credibility

A good performance reward system must have credibility. Oftentimes it seems that management will pay a great deal of attention to setting up elaborate compensation schemes and then will proceed to nullify its efforts by actions designed to disguise the whole procedure.

For one thing, as we have already mentioned, many organizations miss the opportunity to increase managers' trust and confidence in the evaluation procedure by neglecting to secure judgments from all relevant sources. Usually only the immediate superior or a group of superiors evaluates a manager's performance. While this is traditional, it may not be adequate for the organization's needs in the future. As the requirements for sophisticated technical expertise increase throughout wide areas of management, many subordinates may come to expect that the boss's perspective is not necessarily the only one that should be used in performance evaluation.

Subordinate ratings, which we advocated earlier for purposes of making valid measurements, could be particularly useful in developing credibility. By taking them into account, management could determine in advance the motivational impact of giving rewards to particular individuals. It would then be better able to dispense rewards in such a way that the system would be respected and trusted by most members of the organization.

Is secrecy necessary? Another practice which serves to weaken credibility in the reward process is secrecy. Companies often go to great lengths to maintain a shroud of secrecy surrounding their reward practices, especially as they relate to managers' pay. It is next to impossible for the typical manager to know to what degree the organization is actually giving larger monetary rewards in proportion to above-average performance. Even worse, the top-notch performer who *is* getting paid substantially more than his peers may not be aware of just how much more he is receiving.

While there may be some valid reasons for retaining secrecy in the managerial salary system, one of them certainly cannot be that it promotes credibility in the reward process. If anything, secrecy about who gets what in terms of salary and bonuses works to reduce credibility in the whole program, and to this extent weakens the motivational possibilities of linking higher pay to better performance.

Our viewpoint here is not that pay secrecy be summarily chucked out the corporate window and replaced by a policy of publicizing what everyone is being paid. Rather, we are advocating that companies take a serious look at the disadvantages described and consider whether they are outweighed by the presumed advantages of secrecy. At the very least, it would seem that companies might undertake some small-scale and relatively controlled experiments to test executives' assumptions about secrecy. In such experimentation, attitude measurement —both of satisfactions and of effort-reward expectations—could be usefully employed to calculate the impact of the changes.

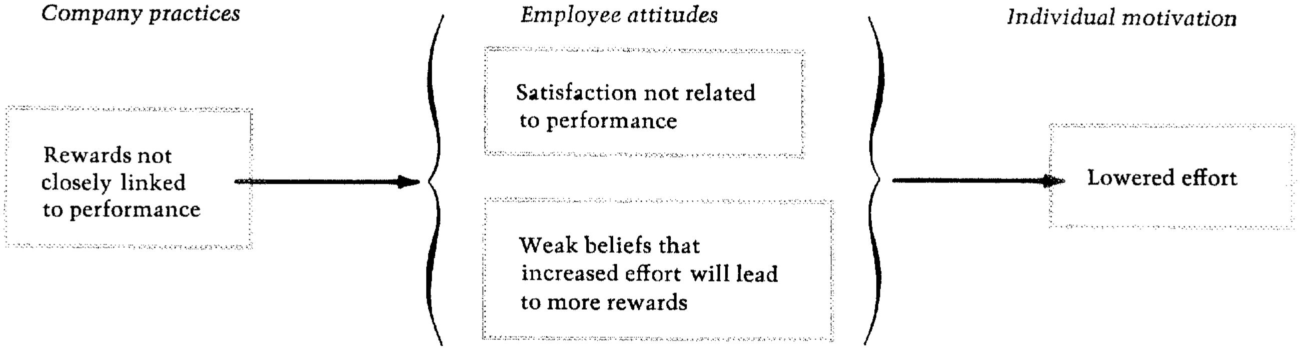
If a company's reward practices are considered valid by those affected, this should serve to reduce a boss's reluctance to evaluate subordinates candidly, since resentments from those receiving low evaluations will be minimized. The boss is most vulnerable to complaints from below when the whole reward process—not just his own evaluations—is regarded skeptically and suspiciously.

Conclusion

Having reviewed the basic components in the chain of steps linking rewards to performance in the eyes of the members of an organization, we can summarize the effects of inadequate reward practices—that is, practices severing or reducing the link between rewards and performance. The effects are portrayed in *Exhibit II.* When the *satisfaction* of a number of individuals is measured and compared with their *performance* ratings, a weak or low association of satisfaction with performance will be found. At the same time, many individuals will have weak beliefs that increased *effort* on their part will result in increased *rewards* (and, hence, satisfaction). Such perceptions, if they are held, are likely to reduce the motivations of people to try to improve their performance.

Evidence that satisfaction is not related to performance should be regarded as a signal for management to investigate effort-reward expectations. Evidence that these expectations are

Exhibit II. Consequences of inadequate reward practices



weak indicates a need for some of the actions and procedures described earlier in this article.

Program of action

To sum up, we recommend the following steps to top management:

1. Try to assess the satisfaction levels of managers, supervisors, and, if desired, other employees.

2. Compare individual satisfaction levels with individual performance assessments, in order to determine the extent to which satisfaction is related to performance.

3. From a motivational point of view, there is no particular utility in trying to increase the satisfaction of all employees in the organization. There *is*, on the other hand, considerable utility in trying to increase the strength of the *relationship* between satisfaction and performance.

4. In addition to measuring the relationship between satisfaction and performance, attempt to measure systematically other types of attitudes—especially, attitudes about what people want from their jobs and whether they hold strong effort-reward expectancies.

5. If such effort-reward expectancies are found to be weak or low, a company should undertake an examination of its reward practices (as opposed to its reward policies), looking particularly hard at how individuals *perceive* these practices.

6. If changes in reward practices are made, assessment of their impact should be carried out by planned *continuous* monitoring of satisfaction-performance relationships and of effort-reward expectancies.

Even if present practices already appear good as indicated by current attitude data, continuous assessment at appropriate intervals—intervals far enough apart not to be annoying to individuals but close enough to provide valid comparisons of results so that trends can be assessed—would seem to be of great value to the organization.

7. With respect to new employees, their attitudes could be monitored frequently—perhaps even weekly—during the first few months they are with the organization. This information would be useful in detecting potential turnover in advance, thus providing time for corrective action.

> "All men seek one goal: success or happiness. The only way to achieve true success is to express yourself completely in service to society. First, have a definite, clear, practical ideal—a goal, an objective. Second, have the necessary means to achieve your ends—wisdom, money, materials, and methods. Third, adjust your means to that end."
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> Aristotle, 384-322 B.C.